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Potes

[Contributions in the form of notes or discussions should be sent to John A. Scott, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.]

A POINT IN THE ARGUMENT OF PLATO'S APOLOGY (32a)

A better case of Socratic irony can hardly be found than in the exordium of the Apology, where Socrates tells the judges that he will speak at random (17c) and that he is unfamiliar with forensic oratory (17d). Professor R. J. Bonner has shown ($Classical\ Philology$, III, 169-77) how closely the Apology conforms, albeit unostentatiously, to the requirements of Athenian legal procedure, and it is recognized that the arguments in their general arrangement are far from being $\epsilon i \kappa \hat{\eta} \lambda \epsilon \gamma \delta \mu \epsilon \nu a$. The present note deals with a point which is vital to the argument of the digressio (28a-34b).

This division of the Apology, which contains some of the noblest passages in all literature, takes the form of a rebuttal of possible objections, and at first glance seems to be a rather general vindication of Socrates' peculiar manner of life. But on closer examination it is seen that in spite of the apparent digressions Socrates is confining himself to the specific charge of atheism (as Meletus has interpreted the indictment) and of corrupting the youth. This is intimated toward the close of his answer to the first objection (29b): τὸ δ' άδικεῖν καὶ ἀπειθεῖν τῷ βελτίονι, καὶ θεῷ καὶ ἀνθρώπῳ, ὅτι κακὸν καὶ αἰσχρόν έστιν οίδα, κτλ. The bearing of his fear of doing wrong upon the charge of corrupting the youth Socrates reserves for later discussion, as we shall see, and proceeds to explain how, as the apostle of ethical idealism, he has been obeying the command of God-which implies belief in the gods, as he has already stated (29a). This leads him to touch upon the charge that he had introduced strange δαιμόνια, for the natural objection might be made to his claim to a divine mission that if God had commanded him to be a "gadfly" he ought to have taken part in legislative debates (31c). It was difficult to answer this objection convincingly to an Athenian jury, and so he presents "strong evidence," which he calls "tiresome court-commonplaces," because of the reference to his public services (32a). Apparently he has in mind to prove nothing more than that his δαιμόνιον must have been a "voice from heaven," because its warning not to enter public life was proved by experience to have been justified. But the words, ἀκούσατε δή μου τὰ συμβεβηκότα, ἴνα εἰδῆτε ότι οὐδ' ἂν ένὶ ὑπεικάθοιμι παρὰ τὸ δίκαιον (32a), introduce another consideration—in fact, they prepare the way for bringing back the argument to the charge of corrupting the youth, which is taken up at 33a. The key to the sudden shift in the argument is found in the use of οὐδ' ἐνί instead of οὐδέν ("yield to no one," instead of "yield no point"). This is clear when

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we compare 33a, αλλ' εγω δια παντός του βίου δημοσία τε εί πού τι έπραξα, τοιοῦτος φανοῦμαι, καὶ ἰδία ὁ αὐτὸς οὖτος, οὐδενὶ πώποτε συγχωρήσας οὐδὲν παρὰ τὸ δίκαιον ουτ' ἄλλφ ουτε τούτων οὐδενὶ ους οἱ διαβάλλοντές μέ φασιν έμους μαθητας cival. Socrates cannot prove that no young man who has been with him has been corrupted. His challenge to the prosecution to put on the witness stand the fathers or brothers who are present is, of course, helpful in establishing his innocence. But the jury must have felt that the careers of Critias and Alcibiades outweighed all the others. Socrates cannot directly clear himself of the charge that he was somewhat responsible for the harm which these two former "pupils" of his had done Athens. His argument that he neither promised nor gave instruction to anyone (33b) is not convincing. But evidence which tended to prove that he never made a wrong concession to anyone, even at the risk of his life, has greater weight. That Socrates actually had Critias and Alcibiades in mind when he used ovo èvi in 32a seems more probable when we compare 32c, καὶ ταῦτα μὲν [the trial of the generals] ἦν ἔτι δημοκρατουμένης της πόλεως έπειδη δ' όλιγαρχία έγένετο, κτλ., with Xen. Mem., i. 2. 12, "ἀλλ'," ἔφη ὁ κατήγορος [who was doubtless giving expression to what at the time of the trial had been the common opinion], "Σωκράτει δμιλητά γενομένω Κριτίας καὶ ᾿Αλκιβιάδης πλεῖστα κακά τὴν πόλιν ἐποιησάτην՝ Κριτίας μὲν γὰρ τῶν ἐν τῆ ὀλιγαρχία πάντων κλέπτιστός τε καὶ βιαιότατος καὶ φονικώτατος ἐγένετο, ᾿Αλκιβιάδης δὲ αὖ τῶν ἐν τῆ δημοκρατία πάντων άκρατέστατός τε καὶ ὑβριστικώτατος καὶ βιαιότατος.

SAMUEL E. BASSETT

University of Vermont Burlington

XENOPHON Anabasis i. 5. 9

This passage is given in Marchant's Oxford text as follows: καὶ συνιδεῖν δ' ἢν τῷ προσέχοντι τὸν νοῦν τῇ βασιλέως ἀρχῇ πλήθει μὲν χώρας καὶ ἀνθρώπων ἰσχυρὰ οὖσα, τοῖς δὲ μήκεσι τῶν ὁδῶν καὶ τῷ διεσπάσθαι τὰς δυνάμεις ἀσθενής, εἶ τις διὰ ταχέων τὸν πόλεμον ποιοίτο. No passage in the Anabasis causes the beginner more trouble than this, and the recent American editors all merely increase the difficulty by wrongly interpreting the construction. The annotators, at least from Goodwin and White down, assume that συνιδεῖν stands in the completed sentence as the subject of the verb $\hat{\eta}_{\nu}$. Either by implication or by direct assertion the student is led to assign the meaning of possibility to the verb $\hat{\eta}_{\nu}$. Naturally enough, the student finds it difficult to understand why the direct object of the verb should stand in the nominative case (ἰσχυρὰ οὖσα). The editors lead him to think that such is the construction here, and add by way of explanation that the nominative is used because the writer's point of view shifts and he then has in mind some such phrase as $\delta \dot{\eta} \lambda \eta \dot{\eta} \nu$, which would require the nominative. "Possibly Xenophon was interrupted in the middle of the sentence, and when he wrote ioxupà ovoa